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ABSTRACT

Differences in the attitudes, social organization, thought patterns, interpersonal distance, time sense, nonverbal communication, and human factors of different cultures can pose communication problems. Since Saudi Arabians generally do not score well on tests of English as a second language, reading at only about the fourth grade level, technical materials intended for them should be clearly written, logically presented, simply organized, and supported by tables, figures, and other comprehension aids. People working with Arabs should also realize several things: (1) they love the spoken word, tend to ramble, and do not get to the point quickly; (2) for them "yes" or "no" means "maybe"; (3) they find bluntness disrespectful; and (4) foreigners' efforts to use Arabic will create a lot of good will. (Appendixes compare qualities of Arabs and Americans and report data on reading tests and reading level computation.) (JL)

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INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

(with special attention to the English Language capabilities of Saudi Arab students)

Presented at the

Seminar on Technology Transfer

Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

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Preface

On 25 and 26 January 1983, the Chief, Navy Section, U.S. Military Training Mission (USMTM) Saudi Arabia sponsored a Seminar on Technology Transfer. The seminar was held at the USMTM Mission Inn, Riyadh. Its purpose was twofold: first, to examine the U.S. Navy's role with the Royal Saudi Naval Forces and the related technical, logistical and training implications to assure a sound technology transfer; second, to strengthen the Naval Material Command Detachment's use of business principles proven in the Middle East.

The rationale for this seminar is well stated in Captain T.A. York's message to seminar participants:

> The seminar is designed to assist the U.S. Navy and its Naval Material Command Detachment, Saudi Arabia, in strengthening its support to the Royal Saudi Naval Forces. We have asked experienced Americans to share their "lessons learned" based on their longer term involvement in the Middle East and Saudi Arabia. Our country remains a success story in the development and use of high technology. Our mission today is to assure a sound technology transfer.

With this purpose and rationale in mind, six Americans, who reside in various parts of the Kingdom and who are generally considered successful in their work with Saudi Arabs, were invited to make a presentation.

After the last speaker on both days, participants were divided into small discussion groups in order to facilitate further interactive discussion on how the presentation materials, ideas and suggestions could be applied to the U.S. Navy's role in Saudi Arabia. Group leaders used "starter" issues to provide structure to these sessions. At the concluding seminar session the leaders summarized their group findings and recommendations.

This paper, "International Communication (with special attention to the English Language capabilities of Saudi Arab students)," was written to

communicate insights as well as to share ideas, experience and expertise on a problem area with seminar participants. It was distributed to those in attendance, some of whom suggested that it be made available to a wider audience. Because there is a high degree of interest in Saudi Arabia at this time and since the information may be useful to others, this paper was submitted for possible inclusion in the ERIC system.

The author would like to extend a special word of thanks to Mr. Dale Mummert who provided leadership and coordination in the planning and conduct of this seminar. He would also like to acknowledge the assistance of his wife Linda, for proofreading early drafts and typing this manuscript; and the many colleagues who helped by sharing insights and being a sounding board for some of the ideas presented.

Clifton P. Campbell
Dammam, Saudi Arabia
January 1983

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INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

(with special attention to the English Language capabilities of Saudi Arab students)

Background

Communication is at the heart of international relations and organizational operations. It may be the most important tool there is for getting things done. Effective communication is undoubtedly a central factor in the success of any collaborative effort in government, business or education and training. It is the basis for understanding, for cooperation and for action.

The word communication can be defined as the act or process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. Important ramifications of this definition are:

First, there must be a receiver if communication is going to occur. This simple fact is too often forgotten or taken for granted. As communicators, we sometimes assume that having transmitted our verbal or written message, the process is complete. This is seldom true. The sender must consider the receiver when delivering the message as well as when structuring it. If the receiver is not considered, there may be either no response or a wrong response.

Second, the definition includes the important matter of understanding. Communication is not an end in itself. Its purpose is to elicit a positive action or response, and this requires that the receiver grasp the meaning of a message.

Breakdowns in communications frequently lie within the words used. On the average, the five hundred most commonly used words in the English language have eighteen different dictionary meanings, and the more usual a word the greater the number of its meanings. For example, a common everyday

verb like take has 317 different meanings according to the Oxford English Dictionary. Therefore, do not think because you have a clear understanding of what you wish to impart that your message will necessarily transmit that same understanding to another person. And the degree to which you can persuade that person to do what you want will depend largely upon the ability to express yourself in terms of his interest. When the receiver of a message believes that it is to his own best interest to do what you want, that person will act because your persuasive words provided the necessary motivation.

Not only is communication the process which transfers information and understanding thereby meeting people's needs and getting things done, but often it is the process which distorts facts, develops frustrations and renders people and organizations ineffective.

Communication across international and cultural boundaries is difficult to say the least. Differences in language, customs, traditions, values, attitudes, behavior, goals, and thought patterns set us apart from other peoples.[1]

There are many forms of verbal and written communications, such as telephone calls, meetings, letters, memos, reports and other printed matter. If you wish to influence another person, especially an Arab, the best of all ways is to talk face-to-face.

Remember, you cannot take back your message to another person. It can be explained, clarified, restated, but it cannot be wiped out although we may sometimes wish that it could. Once we have participated in a communication

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[1]The terms "international" and "cross-cultural" are often used interchangeably. It should be noted, however, that while almost all international experiences are cross-cultural, it is possible to have a cross-cultural experience in one's own country. This is certainly true in the United States.

event, it is part of our experience and it influences present and future meanings. The American who actively expresses disagreement with a Saudi Arab in the presence of others has committed an "impoliteness" in the Arab world that is difficult to remedy.

Cultural Variables

Each of us has been socialized in a unique environment. However, important aspects of the environment are shared and these constitute a particular culture. In a classical sense, culture refers to the cumulative deposit of knowledge, beliefs, values, religion, customs and mores acquired by a group of people and passed on from generation to generation.

The differences in cultures pose communication problems because of the many variables not known to the message sender and receiver. As the cultural variables and differences increase, the number of communication misunderstandings will undoubtedly increase. The following six variables influence our perceptions which in turn influence the meanings we attribute to behavior.

Attitude. Psychological states that predispose us to behave in certain ways are called attitudes. An undesirable attitude for people working in a multicultural environment is ethnocentrism or self reference criterion. This is the tendency to judge others by using one's own personal or cultural standards. For example, instead of attempting to understand the Saudi Arab within his own cultural context, an ethnocentric person tries to understand him as similar to or different from Americans. Edward T. Hall, an authority on contact between peoples of different cultures, stated in an interview published by Psychology Today in 1979:

> We tend to think of Arabs as underdeveloped Americans - Americans with sheets on. We look at them as under-educated and rather poor at anything technological. All we have to do is to make believers out of them, get them proper education, teach them English, and they will turn into Americans.

Hall and other informed travelers maintain that it is vital to refrain from making comparisons between the American way of life and that of others. Rather, we should seek to understand other people in the context of their unique cultural, geographical, political, economic, social, and historical backgrounds. In that way it is possible to become more effective interactors with them.

Social organization. Another important variable that influences our perceptions is the social organization of a culture. Michael Flack made a useful distinction in describing two societal compositions: the geographic society, which is composed of members of a nation, tribe, or religious sect; and the role society, which is composed of members of a profession or the elite of a group. Society in Saudi Arabia is historically tribal in organization.

Thought pattern. Forms of reasoning may differ from culture to culture. The Aristotelian mode of reasoning prevalent in the West is not shared by people in Asia. What is reasonable, logical, and self-evident to an American may be unreasonable, illogical, and not self-evident to an Asian or Middle Easterner. We may often sound just as illogical to them as they do to us.

Interpersonal distance. Space is a factor in the communication process. Americans prefer about 30 inches of space for face-to-face impersonal conversation. We behave as though there is a bubble around us that extends beyond the skin. If anyone breaks the bubble, we become annoyed. The United States is a noncontact society. Other cultural groups, such as the Chinese and Arabs, behave in a different way and require relatively close physical proximity to others during a conversation. Between male Arabs, handshakes are frequent and can last throughout a litany of greetings. A lot of touching can go on during conversations as well. Anwar Sadat often had his hand on another man's knee when he was sitting and talking. This touching is very Egyptian and is a part

of communication in Arab cultures.

Time sense. Americans perceive time in lineal-spatial terms in the sense that there is a past, a present, and a future. We are oriented to the future and in the process of preparing for it we save, waste, use up, or spend time. Americans also tend to push others against time measurements. We place a high priority on promptness while to an Arab it's relative. They feel that for everything there is a season, a natural timing.

Nonverbal communication. This differs significantly across cultures and determines meanings. The left hand doesn't have any particular significance in the West, but in Moslem countries it is the "toilet" hand and should not be used for eating. The American "OK" nonverbal gesture is an obscene gesture in Brazil. Desmond Morris in his book Manwatching identifies many of the nonverbal gestures that have a meaning in one culture, but in another are either not understood, have no meaning at all, or, in some cases, have an obscene meaning.

The six variables discussed show that we communicate our image of self including our system of values and standards; our expectations, ideals and perceptions of peoples, things and situations. This collective image is projected through body, bearing, appearance, tone of voice, choice of words, as well as through the content of the language in which we structure the message. All behavior in human interaction has a message and is communicating something whether consciously intended or not.

Human Factors

Poor communication is very often not so much a problem of not wanting to communicate as it is of not realizing why certain information is important to another individual. The first step toward overcoming this barrier is understanding what information we should be communicating. The second step is

to develop the ability to put ourselves in the other person's shoes. There are always two ways of looking at things. Often they are both right. If we hold to our own perception of reality, we never see the other person's viewpoint, and that makes communication very difficult.

A second factor has to do with semantics. This barrier appears in a number of different ways, for example, using words with which the receiver is not familiar, using words which have a number of different meanings (see page 1), "talking over the head" of the receiver, or making a message unnecessarily complicated and long.

A third factor involves failure to listen. When a sender does not listen, there is no way of getting feedback to see if the message is being understood. We respond favorably to people who respond to us, and listening is tangible evidence of response. When listening is absent, an "I don't care about what you have to say" attitude develops in the receiver.

A related factor is a preoccupation with one's own situation. Very often when people try to communicate, we hear, but push what we hear to the backs of our minds. To communicate effectively, therefore, requires the sender to be sensitive to the state of mind of his receiver, and for the receiver to listen attentively.

A final factor is inadequate planning in terms of the what, when, how, who and why of communications. Before every communication commences, five questions should be asked.

1. What is the specific idea or message that I want to get across?
2. When is the best time to send it?
3. How can it best be accomplished? Media is strategic.
4. To whom should it be communicated?
5. Why is it necessary?

Good communication does not occur by accident. It requires advance planning, and the time spent in planning is usually more than compensated for in results.

English Language Capabilities

Language differences, between the sender of a message and the receiver, create a major communication problem. So, when dealing with those for whom English is a second language, certain language elements must be given particular attention. These include listening comprehension, structure and written expression, as well as reading comprehension and vocabulary.

All three of these elements are measured and scored by several different tests. Test scores are then variously used for admission to and/or placement in civilian as well as military training programs, colleges, etc.

Educational Testing Service administers the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) which is routinely taken by students whose native language is not English and who are seeking admission to institutions in the United States. From September 1978 through August 1980 a total of 473,944 students from 143 different countries took the TOEFL. Because the total number of cases is large and the number of students who took the test, along with their mean scores, are reported by country of birth, meaningful comparisons and relationships can be made from an analysis of the data presented in tables 1, 2, and 3.

Of particular interest are the mean scores for more than six thousand Saudi Arabs. As a group their mean total score was 441 which placed Saudi Arabia in the fifth rank order from the bottom of the scoring scale.

Table 1 shows that the Saudi students had a mean listening comprehension score of 49 and were rank ordered six from the bottom along with fourteen other countries. There were eleven countries with lower mean listening scores.

The mean score for structure and written expression was 42 (see Table 2).

Table 1

Countries with the Six Lowest
Mean Listening Comprehension Scores

Country	Region	n[a]	Mean listening score	Rank order
Congo	Africa	20	44	1
Marshall Islands[b]	Pacific	163	45	2
Guinea[b]	Africa	37	45	2
Mali	Africa	58	46	3
Sudan	Africa	901	47	4
Qatar[b]	Middle East	281	48	5
Libya[b]	Africa	3,262	48	5
American Samoa[b]	Pacific	1,283	48	5
Tonga[b]	Pacific	232	48	5
Togo	Africa	28	48	5
Zaire	Africa	216	48	5
Saudi Arabia[b]	Middle East	6,068	49	6
United Arab Emirates[b]	Middle East	550	49	6
Yemen[b]	Middle East	436	49	6
Kuwait[b]	Middle East	2,338	49	6
Jordan[b]	Middle East	11,699	49	6
Caroline Islands[b]	Pacific	779	49	6
Bangladesh	Asia	1,788	49	6
Somalia	Africa	274	49	6
Benin (Dahomey)	Africa	28	49	6
Upper Volta	Africa	28	49	6
Niger	Africa	37	49	6
Ivory Coast	Africa	440	49	6
Thailand	Asia	16,004	49	6
Korea	Asia	17,631	49	6
Nigeria	Africa	15,020	49	6

NOTES:

1. Country with the lowest mean listening score (44) Congo.
2. Countries with the highest mean listing scores (62) Malta, Netherlands, Denmark, and Sweden.
3. Twenty six countries are rank ordered in the bottom six.
4. Data are from the Educational Testing Service and based on 473,944 foreign students seeking admission to U.S. colleges who took the TOEFL from 1978-1980.

[a] The number of students from each country who took the TOEFL.

[b] One of twelve countries rank ordered in the bottom six in all three categories (listening, writing, and reading).

Table 2

Countries with the Six Lowest
Mean Writing Scores

Country	Region	n[a]	Mean Writing score	Rank order
Marshall Islands[b]	Pacific	163	38	1
Qatar[b]	Middle East	281	41	2
Libya[b]	Africa	3,262	41	2
American Samoa[b]	Pacific	1,283	41	2
Saudi Arabia[b]	Middle East	6,068	42	3
United Arab Emirates[b]	Middle East	550	42	3
Kuwait[b]	Middle East	2,338	42	3
Caroline Islands[b]	Pacific	779	42	3
Guinea[b]	Africa	37	42	3
Mali	Africa	58	42	3
Tonga[b]	Pacific	232	43	4
Jordan[b]	Middle East	11,699	44	5
Iran	Middle East	47,345	44	5
Western Samoa	Pacific	121	44	5
Laos	Asia	102	44	5
Yemen[b]	Middle East	436	45	6
Iraq	Middle East	2,071	45	6
Bahrain	Middle East	466	45	6
Afghanistan	Asia	183	45	6
Congo	Africa	20	45	6
Venezuela	Americas	9,141	45	6

NOTES:

1. Country with the lowest mean writing score (38) Marshall Islands.
2. Country with the highest mean writing score (60) Malta.
3. Twenty-one countries are rank orcered in the bottom six.
4. Data are from the Educational Testing Service and based on 473,944 foreign students seeking amdission to U.S. colleges who took the TOEFL from 1978-1980.

[a]The number of students from each country who took the TOEFL

[b]One of twelve countries rank ordered in the bottom six in all three categories (listening, writing, and reading).

Thus Saudi Arabia was rank ordered, along with five other countries, third lowest. Only four countries had a lower mean writing score.

As shown in Table 3, the Saudi students' worst performance was in reading. Their mean reading comprehension and vocabulary score was 41, rank ordered third with only two lower mean scores.

A comparison of Tables 1, 2, and 3 shows that the Marshall Islands had the lowest mean writing and reading scores and second lowest mean listening score. It should also be noted that twelve of the 143 different countries were rank ordered in the bottom six in all three categories. Seven of these twelve countries are Arab.

In 1975, and again in 1976, the Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, assessed the basic skill levels of Royal Saudi Naval Forces (RSNF) enlisted personnel in training at the Service Schools Command, San Diego. The main conclusion of both studies was that a major impediment to the RSNF sailor was his inability to deal with the reading requirements encountered in technical training. This conclusion along with inferences drawn from an analysis of Saudi student performance in the TOEFL provides evidence of significant deficiencies in reading skills.

Corrective action should logically include special attention to teaching/learning and a concomitant focus on the readability of printed matter used by Saudi Arab students. Text simplification, to lessen reading problems, is obviously needed by Saudi sailors since their reading comprehension and vocabulary scores, on a standardized reading test, were at or about the fourth grade level.

Readability of Printed Material

The term "readability" has several meanings of current usage. It can mean ease of comprehension or understanding, reading interest value, and ease

Table 3

Countries with the Six Lowest
Mean Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Scores

Country	Region	n[a]	Mean Reading score	Rank order
Marshall Islands[b]	Pacific	163	39	1
Qatar[b]	Middle East	281	40	2
Saudi Arabia[b]	Middle East	6,068	41	3
United Arab Emirates[b]	Middle East	550	41	3
Libya[b]	Africa	3,262	41	3
American Samoa[b]	Pacific	1,283	41	3
Kuwait[b]	Middle East	2,338	42	4
Caroline Islands[b]	Pacific	779	42	4
Bahrain	Middle East	466	43	5
Tonga[b]	Pacific	232	43	5
Jordan[b]	Middle East	11,699	44	6
Iran	Middle East	47,345	44	6
Western Samoa	Pacific	121	44	6
Laos	Asia	102	44	6
Yemen[b]	Middle East	436	44	6
Guinea[b]	Africa	37	44	6

NOTES:

1. Country with the lowest mean reading score (39) Marshall Islands.
2. Countries with the highest mean reading scores (59) Malta, Ireland, and Luxembourg.
3. Sixteen countries are rank ordered in the bottom six.
4. Data are from the Educational Testing Service and based on 473,944 foreign students seeking admission to U.S. colleges who took the TOEFL from 1978-1980.

[a]The number of students from each country who took the TOEFL.

[b]One of twelve countries rank ordered in the bottom six in all three categories (listening, writing, and reading).

of legibility.

While the legibility aspects of printed material have obvious importance and high interest value in always desirable, the ease of comprehension of printed material is the focus of attention here.

All printed material is intended to be read and used to a greater or lesser degree. However, if the reading difficulty level is too high, its use will be adversely affected. It should be remembered that most Americans read at or about the ninth grade level. In addition, readers generally prefer to read at a level below their maximum ability. For example, a college graduate who can read at the 16th grade level prefers to read at a 12th grade level.

Most of the published research on the readability of printed material has understandably been directed to the analysis and improvement of school reading materials, particularly at the lower and middle grades. Readability formulas have been in use since the 1920's, but it was not until the late 1940's that formulas appeared which gained wide acceptance.

There are comparatively few readability studies dealing with technical or scientific materials, since these are normally found at the secondary or post-secondary levels of education. One study of five industrial education textbooks at the Grade 9 level found that the reading grade levels (RGL) of the books varied between 8 and 10. However, it was also found that of the 411 students using these texts only 31% were reading at a Grade 9 or higher level.

In order to further illustrate the problem of readability, as it relates to technical materials, a RGL comparison was made. Eleven industrial education textbooks used in grades 9 through 12 were selected and four readability indices were applied to each of the texts. The four indices were: Smog Readability Formula, Fry Readability Formula, Fog Index and the Flesch Kincaid Formula. Considerations such as the number of syllables in words, sentence and

passage length, and mathematical computations were involved in the process of determining RGL's.

The reading grade levels of all eleven textbooks as determined by each of the four indices are listed in Table 4. These levels ranged from a low of 7 to a high of 19. Minor differences in the mean RGL's of the texts are not considered important. The mean values do facilitate the rank ordering of each book from the lowest mean RGL of 8.7 for an Automotive Mechanics text to a high of 14.5 for an Aircraft Maintenance book.

A review of Table 4 shows considerable agreement between three of the indices with the Fog Index results consistently higher than all others. It should also be noted that many of the textbooks have post-secondary RGL's. This poses a problem with their use in grades 9 through 12.

Obviously, the lower the RGL the more comprehensible the text. Reading grade levels range from 1.0 in newspapers to over 20 in some highly technical literature.

All this demonstrates that technical materials are frequently written at "too lofty" a level for Americans, let alone students from other countries for whom English is a second language. Such materials will only be read when the reader can comfortably understand them. They should be written, therefore, at a RGL commensurate with the capability of the target population for which they are intended.

The following guidelines will help a writer in preparing sharp, simple and clear text, thereby facilitating understanding:

1. Write clear, grammatical sentences.
   a. Keep sentences short -- on the average, no longer than 20 words.
   b. Use simple, familiar words; avoid long words, abstract words, technical words, and jargon.

Table 4

Reading Grade Levels (RGL) of

Industrial Education Textbooks

by Four Readability Indices

Textbook topic	Smog	Fry	Fog[a]	Flesch	Mean RGL
Drafting	9	10	13	9	10.2
Graphics	10	11	16	10	11.6
Automotive Mechanics	8	8	12	7	8.7
Auto body	9	11	13	10	10.7
Air Maintenance	12	14	19	13	14.5
Building Construction	10	10	15	9	10.9
Machine Shop	10	11	14	10	11.2
Welding	11	12	15	10	11.9
Sheet Metal	9	8	12	7	9.0
Electricity	11	14	15	12	13.1
Electronics	10	14	16	12	12.9

[a]Fog Index RGL's are higher than the other three indices for all eleven textbooks.

c. Use no more than one three-syllable word in ten.

2. Try to use the same tense, person, and voice consistently throughout a paragraph; don't shift the "point of view" unnecessarily or illogically.

3. Present your material in a logical, orderly sequence.

   a. Limit each paragraph to one idea or subject.

   b. Distill as much as possible, and write as briefly as you can.

4. Try to keep your organization simple. Avoid complicated subparagraphs; instead, convert them to main paragraphs when you can.

5. Use tables, illustrations, pictures, etc. to clarify and stimulate interest.

6. When you write titles for tables, figures, paragraphs, chapters, etc., make sure your titles are clear and descriptive enough to stand alone.

Concluding Statement

Interpersonal work or social relations with Arabs frequently "go sour," not because of personality factors, but because of ineffective communications. Good communication is the art -- or science, or discipline, or alchemy -- of bridging gaps of human frailty.

The following linguistic factors are worthy of note in working with Arabs:

1. They love the spoken word, tend to ramble and don't get to the point quickly. It is unwise to exhibit impatience or annoyance at this. Arabs may be offended at your lack of appreciation of their eloquence.

2. Don't accept a mere "yes" or "no" as a promise.

   - To an Arab, a mere yes/no means "maybe," or even the opposite, so the foreigner would do well to repeat and emphasize his answers, following the Arab practice.

- Arabs find bluntness very disrespectful, which is why they usually respond in the most agreeable manner, regardless of truth.

3. Any effort the foreigner makes to use Arabic will be received enthusiastically and create a lot of good will.

An effective communicator working with Americans in the U.S. is not necessarily an effective communicator working with Arabs. There is the consoling knowledge, however, that sensitive, observant human beings can acquire on their own, insights into the unique ways in which to effectively communicate. One of the things we do right as Americans is to keep on trying with absolute determination.

APPENDIX A

A Comparison of Selected Peculiar and Distinctive Qualities of Americans and Arabs

A COMPARISON OF SELECTED PECULIAR AND DISTINCTIVE QUALITIES OF AMERICANS AND ARABS

(Attributes which require adjustments to thinking)

AMERICANS		ARABS
	Time Sense	
Place a high priority on promptness and getting the job done. Tend to push others against time measurements.		Feel that for everything there is a season, a natural timing. If you aren't willing to take the time to sit down and have a cup of tea with people, you have a problem.
	Credentials	
Define themselves by achievements, education, job experience, or position.		Define themselves by who they are related to and know well. Diplomas and certificates are important documents.
	Judging Individuals	
Emphasis on one's record, influence, and power.		Emphasis on the family as well as one's reputation, and image.
	Competition	
A healthy motivator.		Not logical - all "good" people should win.
	Suppositions	
Tend to use improbable suppositions to explain an idea.		Tend to use only realistic suppositions, not improbable ones.
	Business Decisions	
Business is business, not social chatting; eager to get down to business.		Getting to know you is "sticking to business"; need to know more about you before a business relationship can develop.

APPENDIX B

A Correlation Study Between Two

English Language Screening Tests

A Correlation Study Between Two English Language Screening Tests

1. A correlation study was conducted comparing the English Comprehension Level (ECL) test, prepared by the U.S. Defense Language Institute English Language Center and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) test administered by Educational Testing Service. Data for the study was obtained from a 1978 administration of both tests to 104 Midshipmen in the Iranian Navy. It was determined that there is a positive correlation (correlation coefficient = 0.80) between the two tests.

2. Findings:

A. All students who scored 450 or better on the TOEFL scored 70 or higher on the ECL.

B. 88% of the students who scored 500 or better on the TOEFL scored 80 or higher on the ECL.

C. 67% of the students who scored 83 or better on the ECL scored 500 or more on the TOEFL.

D. 70% of the students who scored 76 or better on the ECL scored 450 or more on the TOEFL.

E. 58% of the students who scored 72 or better on the ECL scored 450 or more on the TOEFL.

F. None of the students who scored 69 or lower scored 450 or more on the TOEFL.

APPENDIX C

Computing Reading Grade Level

COMPUTING READING GRADE LEVEL (RGL)

1. NAME OF PROJECT OFFICER	2. OFFICE SYMBOL	3. PHONE NUMBER
		5. PUBLICATION NUMBER
4. PUBLICATION TITLE		6. RGL OF THIS MANUSCRIPT
		7. RGL OF TARGET AUDIENCE

1. First find out how many samples you must measure:

NUMBER OF PAGES		SAMPLE PASSAGES
MANUSCRIPT	PRINTED	
1 TO 50	1 TO 25	1 TO 4
51 TO 150	26 TO 75	5 TO 8
151 TO 300	76 TO 150	9 OR 10
301 TO 600	151 TO 300	11 TO 14
601 TO 1000	301 TO 500	15 TO 22
1001 AND OVER	501 AND OVER	23 TO 26

SAMPLE A	PARAGRAPH NUMBER OF SAMPLE B	NUMBER OF ONE-SYLLABLE WORDS C	RGL OF SAMPLE D
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
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TOTAL *(ITEMS IN COLUMN D)*			

2. Choose your samples at random throughout the manuscript, and make sure they are typical.
   a. Use only running text for your samples.
   b. Do not use titles, checklists, step-by-step procedures, or series of unrelated statements.
   c. Use a bracket to mark where each sample begins.
   d. Write the paragraph number where each sample begins in column B. *(Use additional sheets if necessary.)*

3. Each sample should be 150 words long.
   a. Start counting at the beginning of the paragraph, right after the title.
   b. Count contractions and hyphenated words as one word *(couldn't, second grade)*.
   c. Count a group of letters or numbers with a space on each side as one word *(23, AFSC, U.S.C., NATO)*.
   d. Do not count quotations.
   e. Do not count mathematical symbols *(+, X, %)*.
   f. Stop counting at the 150th word, even if it is in the middle of a sentence. This is the end of your sample; mark it with a bracket.

4. Count the number of one-syllable words in each sample.
   a. Count a word's number of syllables by the way you pronounce it. If in doubt, look the word up in a dictionary.
   b. With numbers and abbreviations, again count the number of syllables by the way you pronounce them *(AFSC is a four-syllable word; NATO is a two-syllable word)*.
   c. Record each sample's number of one-syllable words in column C.

5. Find the RGL for each sample from the table on the back of this form.
   a. Look up the number of one-syllable words in a sample, then read the RGL opposite it. Enter this RGL in column D.
   b. If the table does not give the number of one-syllable words in a sample, use this method:
      (1) Divide the number of one-syllable words by ten *(that is, move the decimal point one place to the left) (for example, change 131 to 13.1)*.
      (2) Subtract it from 20 *(for example, 20 - 13.1 = 6.9)*. The answer is the sample's RGL. Write it in column D.

6. Now find the average RGL for your entire manuscript.
   a. Add all the RGLs in column D, and write the total at the bottom of the column.
   b. Divide this total by the number of samples. The answer is the average RGL; write it in block 6.

7. Compare your manuscript's actual RGL *(block 6)* with your readers' reading ability *(block 7)*. If your manuscript has a higher RGL than your readers can understand, it is too difficult. Revise it to reduce the RGL.

NOTE: Before you release your manuscript, make sure it meets the plain English standards on the back of this form.

8. DATE PREPARED	9. SIGNATURE OF PROJECT OFFICER

RGL CONVERSION TABLE

NUMBER ONE-SYLLABLE WORDS	RGL	NUMBER ONE-SYLLABLE WORDS	RGL	NUMBER ONE-SYLLABLE WORDS	RGL
56	14.4	76	12.4	96	10.4
57	14.3	77	12.3	97	10.3
58	14.2	78	12.2	98	10.2
59	14.1	79	12.1	99	10.1
60	14.0	80	12.0	100	10.0
61	13.9	81	11.9	101	9.9
62	13.8	82	11.8	102	9.8
63	13.7	83	11.7	103	9.7
64	13.6	84	11.6	104	9.6
65	13.5	85	11.5	105	9.5
66	13.4	86	11.4	106	9.4
67	13.3	87	11.3	107	9.3
68	13.2	88	11.2	108	9.2
69	13.1	89	11.1	109	9.1
70	13.0	90	11.0	110	9.0
71	12.9	91	10.9	111	8.9
72	12.8	92	10.8	112	8.8
73	12.7	93	10.7	113	8.7
74	12.6	94	10.6	114	8.6
75	12.5	95	10.5	115	8.5

PLAIN ENGLISH STANDARDS

1. Write your manuscript so its reading grade level matches your target audience's reading ability, as much as you can.
2. Write mainly in the active voice, and use a plain, uncluttered style.
3. Write clear, grammatical sentences.
   a. Keep sentences short--on the average, no longer than 20 words.
   b. Use simple, familiar words; avoid long words, abstract words, technical words, and jargon.
4. Try to use the same tense, person, and voice consistently throughout a paragraph; don't shift the "point of view" unnecessarily or illogically.
5. Present your material in a logical, orderly sequence.
   a. Limit each paragraph to one idea or subject.
   b. Write as briefly as you can.
6. Try to keep your organization simple. Avoid complicated subparagraphs; instead, convert them to main paragraphs when you can.
7. When you write titles for figures, paragraphs, chapters, etc., make sure your titles are clear and descriptive. Avoid one-word titles; be specific.

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